44827

National Library of Canada
Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Canadian Theses Division
Division des thèses canadiennes

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

PERMISSION TO MICROFILM — AUTORISATION DE MICROFILMER

• Please print or type — Écrire en lettres moulées ou dactylographier

Full Name of Author — Nom complet de l'auteur

RANDAL WILLIAM SUMMERS

Date of Birth — Date de naissance

Sept 4, 1946

Country of Birth — Lieu de naissance

CANADA

Permanent Address — Résidence fixe

45 SIR BEDEVERE PLACE.
MARKHAM, ONTARIO
L3P2W5

Title of Thesis — Titre de la thèse

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POSITION AND POWER BASE PREFERENCE IN MANAGEMENT

University — Université

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Degree for which thesis was presented — Grade pour lequel cette thèse fut présentée

Ph.D. EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Year this degree conferred — Année d'obtention de ce grade

1980

Name of Supervisor — Nom du directeur de thèse

Dr. E.E. Fox

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

Date

April 10/80

Signature

Randal William Summers

NL-91 (4/77)

National Library of Canada
Collections Development Branch

Canadian Theses on
Microfiche Service

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada
Direction du développement des collections

Service des thèses canadiennes
sur microfiche

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POSITION AND POWER BASE PREFERENCE IN MANAGEMENT

BY

(C) RANDAL WILLIAM SUMMERS

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

SPRING, 1980

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled, "The Relationship Between Position and Power Base Preference in Management", submitted by Randal William Summers in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

E. E. Fox
Supervisor

Peter Calder

L. A. Skinner

A. H. J. Lee

Henry B. Tiel

Date: April 9, 1980

DEDICATION

For my wife, Julia, whose patience, love and understanding has been the source of my strength.

ABSTRACT

The typological analysis of social power of French and Raven (1959) was used as the theoretical basis for a field investigation of corporate managers in a large energy company. An instrument entitled Supervisory Situations Survey (SSS) was constructed to measure power base preference. The instrument provided a score on each of the five power bases: reward, legitimate, expert, referent, and coercion. An initial 54-item version (Form A) was constructed and administered to a group of 37 managers. On the basis of an item analysis, the test was shortened to 45 items. Test-retest reliability estimates for the five bases on the shortened form ranged from .69 to .88. Internal consistency was determined using K-R20 item analysis with correlations for the five power bases ranging from .75 to .86. This refined, 45-item version (Form B) was then used in the field investigation.

The definition of power, previous research, and the relationship of other concepts to power base preference was discussed. A power model was described as a means of identifying the focus of varying research on "power". Specific hypotheses were stated in respect to managers' level of position in an organization and their power base preferences. One hundred and twenty-seven (127) managers were selected from three levels of management and the SSS administered.

When mean scores were ranked, it was found that managers, irrespective of position in the organization preferred reward and legitimate power bases. A coercive power base was found to be the least preferred. In addition, there were a number of significant differences among the power base preferences and the three levels of management. No relationship was found between power base preference and age, education, and number of employees supervised. Implications for use of the SSS in industry were discussed and further research considerations were explored.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author wishes to recognize all those who provided me with the support and encouragement in completing this research:

Dr. E.E. Fox (Supervisor), Dr. B. Blowers, Dr. P. Calder, Dr. M. Smith, Dr. H. Ziel, R.E. Harris, E.J. Gaunt, R. Tatters, R.A. Haubrich, C. Mosca, A. Kain, B.J. Meagher, Dr. R. Bourke, Dr. J. Payne, Dr. D.Y. Lee, M.B.A. students at York University, and the managers at Gulf Canada Limited and its affiliate companies.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
I	INTRODUCTION	1
	French and Raven's Typological Analysis of Social Power	2
	Evaluating Research on Social Power	4
	Overview of the Study	5
II	SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE	6
	Introduction	6
	Historical Perspective	6
	Related Concepts and Theories	7
	Summary of Relevant Studies	9
	Power Model	22
	Hypotheses	28
III	CONSTRUCTION OF THE SUPERVISORY SITUATIONS SURVEY (SSS)	30
	Item Preparation	30
	Scoring Procedure	31
	Item Analysis Procedure	32
	Final Item Selection	33
	Validity Considerations	34
	Reliability Estimates	34

CHAPTER		PAGE
IV	PROCEDURE AND DESIGN	36
	The Samples	36
	MBA Students	36
	Corporate Managers	37
	Instruments	37
	Investigation Procedures	38
V	FINDINGS	39
	Hypotheses Related to Power Base Preferences	39
	Results	40
	Conclusions	41
	Findings Related to Groups in the SSS Construction Phase	43
	MBA Students	44
	Corporate Managers	44
	Findings Related to Other Variables	45
VI	DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS	47
	The SSS Questionnaire and Power Base Preference	47
	Power Base Preference and Level of Position of Corporate Managers in The Organization	49
	Unsupported Hypotheses	52
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	55
	APPENDIX A	58
	APPENDIX B	59
	APPENDIX C	70

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE		PAGE
1	Techniques Common to Power Bases and Correlation with Effective Power	13
2	Categorization of Research into the Power Model	27
3	Item-Total Correlations for Form A of The Supervisory Situations Survey	32
4	Means and Standard Deviations for Each Item on Form A of the Supervisory Situations Survey .	33
5	Test-Retest Correlations for Graduate Student Sample	34
6	Internal Consistency For Form B of the Supervisory Situations Survey	35
7	Means and Standard Deviations for Each Power Base (All Levels of Managers Combined)	41
8	Means and Standard Deviations for Each Power Base for Each Level of Manager	41
9	Comparison of SSS Scores of Managers at Three Levels in the Organization	43
10	Combined Means of the Test and Retest on Each Power Base (MBA Students)	44
11	Mean Scores on Form A of the SSS Administered To Corporate Managers	45
12	Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between Power Base Scores and Other Variables	46

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE		PAGE
1	Elements of the Power Model Abbreviated	23
2	Variables That Are Associated With the Elements of the Power Model	24

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of social power, defined as the ability of one or more persons to influence the behaviour or emotions of another person or persons (Winter, 1973), is still not fully understood. Moss Kanter (1979) exemplifies the mystique around the concept of power by writing:

> "Power is America's last dirty word. People who have it, deny it; people who want it, do not want to appear to hunger for it, and people who engage in its machinations, do so secretly." (p. 65).

The intent of this study is to contribute to the literature on social power by examining the way managers, in organizational settings, prefer to influence others. French and Raven's (1959) typological analysis of social power will be used as the theoretical basis for this examination.

French and Raven's Typological Analysis of Social Power

The power base notion originated in the work of French and Raven (1959). They defined social power as the potential influence that could be exerted on a person's cognitions, attitudes, or behaviour. They developed a typological analysis of power which consisted of five bases of power: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert.

Reward Power. The capacity of one person to provide desired outcomes to others in exchange for compliance with desired behaviour. Reward power increases as the value of the desired outcomes increases. The rewarding person becomes more attractive to the complying person when reward power is used.

Coercive Power. The capacity to inflict negative outcomes on another person. Compliant behaviour becomes the means by which a person can escape or avoid these negative outcomes. Coercive power can take the form of withholding of rewards, or it may imply an action of negative value to a person (e.g., punishment). The disadvantage of using coercive power is that the results cannot always be predicted. The power holder may expect a person to behave in a way that is in line with meeting organizational goals. However, when coercive power is used, the person's only aim is to avoid punishment. Thus they may behave in alternate ways by covering up errors or falsifying reports.

Legitimate Power. The capacity of a person to influence others by virtue of rank or position. Influence attempts consist of role behaviour that is consistent with cultural values, the hierarchy of authority in an organization, or expectations of the group which appointed or elected the powerholder.

Referent Power. The capacity to influence others based on high attractiveness. It involves the process of identification (wanting to be like someone else). A person may identify with the powerholder and seek to please him by complying with the powerholder's wishes. In some situations, such as with charismatic leaders, followers may be unaware of the referent power he or she has over them.

Expert Power. The capacity to influence others on the basis of superior knowledge or abilities. A person in order to be influenced, must believe that the powerholder's knowledge or ability exceeds his own in a specific area. In addition, the powerholder's capacity to influence requires that others are motivated to attain goals in the specific area of the powerholder's expertise.

The focus of this study will be on the stated preference of a manager for the use of certain influence techniques that are associated with each of the five power bases (French & Raven, 1959). The actual use of these techniques or the success of their outcomes in the work setting is beyond the scope of the study.

Evaluating Research on Social Power

The relevant research on social power will be reviewed in the next chapter. However, to evaluate this research in any meaningful way, one must reconcile three areas of potential difficulty.

The first is the multiple conceptualization and varied terminology associated with the term power. Power is sometimes seen as a need state, an attitude, an attribute, and sometimes as overt behaviour. Power, authority, and leadership appear to be used interchangeably.

Secondly, the focus of the research has varied. That is, some authors have investigated people influenced by a powerholder. These people would account in retrospect for the ways others have influenced them. Other authors have stressed the resources available to a person as being the critical factor in influence attempts. Still others have focussed on the end result or effectiveness of influence techniques.

The third area of difficulty is the lack of consistent measurement methods. To date, there is no reliable psychometric test available that is specific to French and Raven's typology. Previous studies (French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 1965; Raven, Centers & Rodrigues, 1969) relied upon interpreting responses of subjects obtained in interviews. Others (Burke & Wilcox, 1971; Burke, 1972) have used five or six questions which ask subjects directly about the use of particular power bases.

In an attempt at reconciling these three areas, a test instrument will be developed for measuring power base preference. In addition, a power model will be described in order to conceptually organize the varying research on social power.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of the present study is to: construct a power base preference test instrument; describe a power model which depicts the relative relationship of a number of variables in the power construct; and conduct a field research examining (a) the power base preferences of managers in an energy company; (b) the relationship between level of position held in an organization and power base preference.

First, relevant literature will be reviewed. Then Form A of the test instrument will be constructed and administered to a sample of managers. From an analysis of the responses, a final version Form B of the test will be developed. For purposes of face validity, the instrument will be termed Supervisory Situations Survey (SSS). Reliability estimates will be obtained using a test-retest procedure with a sample of MBA students. Finally, the SSS will be administered to three groups of managers from an energy company. The groups will represent each of the three levels of management. In addition to position level and power base preference, variables such as age, years of service, education, and number of employees supervised will be examined.

CHAPTER II

SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter I, an attempt will be made to organize some of the information on social power. In doing so, a review of literature will include a historical perspective, a brief overview of related concepts and theories, and a summary of relevant research on power base preference. Also, prior to formulating specific hypotheses, a power model will be described.

Historical Perspective

The study of power has long intrigued many a philosopher, theologian, and politician. McClelland (1975) aptly remarked "... the task has confounded man's thinking for centuries". For example, Plato, Aristotle (2,000 years ago), Machiavelli (450 years ago), Hobbes (300 years ago), and Nietzshe pondered about the nature of man and the origin of society. In so doing, they set forth many an explanation revolving about man's striving for power.

More recently, sociologists, political scientists, and social psychologists have attempted to explain wars, racial turmoil, and a variety of other social and political phenomena by way of the concept

of power. Their notions of power varied from the search for individual traits to the examination of interpersonal situations. According to Winter (1973), some sociologists saw an individual becoming a leader not only by virtue of their abilities, but also because the situation required those abilities at that moment. The "Great-Man-Theory" viewed the leader as a symbol of the emergence of certain groups in society. By contrast, the traditional psychological view considered the power of a leader stemming from his or her superior physical or mental abilities. Great effort was expended to identify these leadership traits following World War I, only to be abandoned in 1950 in favour of a more situational view. Winter (1973) has commented that ample evidence supports the situational view, but adds that evidence also exists which supports the notion of individual factors and motives which may operate in conjunction with situational factors.

Related Concepts and Theories

The long history of interest in power resulted not only in a convergence of thinking among many disciplines, but also gave rise to the renewed scientific enquiry into the many and varied facets of power. This renewed interest brought numerous terms, theories, and related concepts which tended to obscure the meaning of power. Lawless (1972) critically remarked that the use of the term power in explaining everything has resulted in the term becoming meaningless in and of itself. In addition, different words were used to describe the same

concept and vice versa. An extreme example is the categorization of the forms of influence by Lasswell and Kaplan (1950). They identified sixty-four forms of influence based on the means of influence and the goal of the influence attempt. Another example is the use of the synonymous terms; influence and authority. Back (1961) attempted to clarify their meaning. He indicated that the inferred state of an individual is called an attitude which affects the likelihood of some action. Power that changes an attitude was called influence and power that directly produces action was called authority.

In addition to the confusion created by those semantic distinctions considerable researches were generated which involved concepts very closely related to power. They varied according to their emphasis on situational and/or personal factors. Rotter (1966) investigated the perceived locus of control; de Charms (1968) studied personal causation. These concepts and their corresponding theories focussed on a person's sense of fate-control. That is, a feeling or expectancy about attaining a goal and the control of reinforcers by self or others. Kruglanski (1972) investigated situational considerations for predicting attributed power following social interactions. A great deal was also written about authoritarianism and Machiavellianism which included notions about the value of power, who should have it and how it is to be exerted. Winter (1973) and McClelland (1975) viewed power as a motive. They suggested that this motive operated unconsciously and dealt with striving for power rather than the actual present position of power. In classical personality theory, Freud considered power in his explanation of the development of the ego. The ego was believed to control the antisocial

impulses of the id as well as the internalized parental and societal demands (superego). Adler considered power in his conceptualization of inferiority and superiority complexes. He felt that individuals may strive for mastery over everyone and everything as compensation for feelings of inferiority. Kelman (1958) classified power into three categories: compliance, identification, and internalization. He defined compliance as a change in behaviour (accept orders) but without a corresponding change in attitude. Identification was seen as an individual changing his behaviour to be like another. Internalization was similar but involved a greater rational component. Thibaut and Kelly (1959) viewed power in terms of the gratification one person can provide to another. He called the group dynamics a pay-off matrix - characteristic behaviour patterns that result in maximal gratification. Back (1961) investigated interpersonal patterns of communication and developed a mathematical model. The model represented conditions under which authority and influence are exerted. He concluded that both influence and authority in combination result in the highest probability of enduring change occurring in a target. There have been many more areas of research on power involving variables such as socioeconomic status, sex, race, ethnicity, nature of task, etc., but an exhaustive account would not serve the purpose of this study.

Summary of Relevant Studies

Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) studied a number of industrial organizations such as oil companies, electronic firms, and

automobile and machine part manufacturers. They examined the power bases and corresponding influence techniques that the superiors and subordinates used. They examined both the direct chain of command as well as the indirect influence exerted by individuals in the same organization. They found that with formal authority or the legitimate power base, influence techniques tend to be direct orders and commands. These techniques were used most frequently by superiors that were a few steps higher than the subordinate in the direct chain of command. It was suggested that since the subordinate and his immediate superior work together more closely affective reactions become more important than formal authority. If this is the case, a supervisor, with fewer subordinates, might also have more opportunity to interact with them and thus be less inclined to influence them from a legitimate power base. This assertion will be tested in this research by examining the relationship between supervisors' perferences for legitimate power and the number of employees they supervise.

Kahn also found the use of legitimate power correlated .74 with effective power. Effective power was the actual success or behaviour change resulting from an influence technique attempt. The subject of the present research will focus on managers' preferences for using certain techniques as opposed to the results or how effective they are in their use.

In respect to reward (rewarding compliance) and coercive (punishing non-compliance) power bases, 70% of direct supervisors indicated they

would offer a recommendation of a raise as a means of influence. Reward power correlated .63 with effective power. Both direct and indirect superiors indicated they would take recourse to coercion called "disciplinary action" which could take the form of transfer, dismissals, and blocking of promotion or salary increase. Eighty percent of the individuals who were subordinates two levels in the organization below a particular individual said they would exert influence (coercive) by withholding aid, information, or co-operation. The superiors on the other hand were reluctant to use these techniques for fear it would result in "organizational suicide". Based on this finding, it is predicted that in the present study, coercion will be the manager's leastpreferred power base.

The techniques stemming from an expert power base involve the bringing of new information about the situation, explaining, clarifying, reasoning, arguing, and talking it over as a means of persuading others to adopt one's own views. Because these techniques minimize any threat of retaliation, Kahn reported them as most commonly used (86% of supervisors, 81% of peers, and 72% of subordinates). In examining this finding, the present study predicts that managers will report a greatest preference for an expert power base.

The referent power base involved influence attempts based on both attraction (friendship) and identification with one's superior. Any influence attempt made by virtue of an appeal to friendship or personal favour or company loyalty was perceived as distasteful and therefore used

infrequently. But, influence attempts based on the degree to which subordinates identified with the superior were far more common and preferred more than direct orders, promises of reward, or threats of disciplinary action. Therefore, in the present study, managers should report a greater preference for referent than legitimate, reward, or coercive power bases.

Kahn's work is relevant to the present study in three ways. Firstly, it demonstrates the significance of the situation as a variable in the dynamics of power. In other words, a person's position in an organization in relation to the target may effect his choice of technique present study extends this notion by examining situations involving managers and subordinates with the managers occupying varying position levels in the company such as first line, middle, or senior management.

Secondly, Kahn's work is relevant in that the influence techniques he studied were used in the construction of the test instrument (Supervisory Situations Survey). Table 1 summarizes the influence techniques common to each power base and the corresponding relationship with effectiveness of the technique (Kahn, 1964).

TABLE 1

TECHNIQUES COMMON TO POWER BASES AND CORRELATION WITH EFFECTIVE POWER (after Kahn, 1964):

n = 381

POWER BASE	TECHNIQUE	CORRELATION WITH EFFECTIVE POWER
Legitimate	1. Use authority to make final decision	.74
	2. Direct order or command	.31
Reward	3. Recommend promotion or raise	.63
Coercive	4. Disciplinary action	.08
	5. Make things difficult on the job	.61
Expert	6. Rely on his/her confidence in one's knowledge	.18
	7. Bring new information about situation	.01
	8. Convince him/her it is right for company	.07
Referent	9. Appeal to friendship	.22
	10. Ask personal favours	.04
	11. Appeal to company loyalty	.19
Indirect	12. Go through channels of another person	.06

Thirdly, Kahn concluded that managers most commonly operate from expert and referent power bases but are most effective from legitimate and reward power bases. These findings that managers may prefer to use certain techniques but are more effective using others suggests two things. Firstly, we need to separate and clearly delineate what managers' preferences are and secondly, examine other variables that may contribute to their effectiveness. In addition, Kahn's findings did not quite agree with the position of noted authors such as Likert (1961) and Tannenbaum (1962). They maintained that reward, referent, and expert power bases were more effective than a legitimate power base.

In a series of studies in various occupational settings Bachman (1966, 1968) found the expert and legitimate power bases most commonly used. His findings on effectiveness (related to subordinate's job satisfaction and performance) did not agree with Kahn's findings either. Bachman found the expert power to be most effective. Therefore, some of Kahn's conclusions will be tested in the present study.

Schopler (1965) reviewed a number of studies on social power and concluded: (1) users of reward power are more liked than coercive power figures; (2) conformity to coercive power increases with the strengths of potential punishment; (3) expertness on one task produces the ability to exert influence on a second, but only when the tasks are comparable. His findings have some relevant implications. Firstly, they point out the importance of three variables or components involved in social power: the nature of the task, the technique used, and the

reaction of the target person. Secondly, his conclusions encompass only reward and coercive power bases. Further research is needed particularly in relation to legitimate, referent, and expert power bases. Finally, he pointed out the difficulty in keeping power bases uncontaminated, often resulting in the nonindependence of power bases. The suggestion is that the power base typology may be of little use other than for analytical purposes. The present study may shed some light on these issues by examining these power bases and their relationship with other variables.

Raser (1966) studied the personal characteristics of decision makers and the potential of a legitimate power base. He contended that leaders become the most severe taskmasters when given access to institutional means of influence. His study focused on two other social power variables, the person who wants to influence others and the resources he has available to him. Moss Kanter (1979) more recently commented on the resources of managers. She indicated that many first line and senior managers were powerless because they have little access to resources. The present study examines first line, middle, and senior managers. If Raser's and Moss Kanter's arguments are correct, then this study should find the middle managers with a greater preference for a legitimate power base than the first line and senior managers.

Warren (1968) examines teachers' perceptions of school principals. He found the principals all high on at least three power bases. However, compliance was highest when referent power alone was used. His results

differed from both Kahn's and Bachman's, mentioned earlier. The focus of the study was on the reaction of the target person. Perhaps the perceptions of the target may not relate to the power base preferences of the principals. Warren's study again illustrates the varying focus of the studies and also the possibility that managers typically use a combination of power bases.

Student (1968) found some evidence for the use of combinations. He studied the relationship between productivity and the use of power bases. He found some supervisors used reward and coercion while others used referent and expert power bases. The latter tended to increase the quality of work without the loss of quantity. These findings do not agree with those of Kahn's industrial samples where a legitimate power base was found to be most effective. It would seem that the use of a particular power base in and of itself cannot consistently account for the same results or effects on a target.

Burke and Wilcox (1971) made a similar comment. They studied job satisfaction of subordinates in a utility company. Their findings were consistent with Bachman's in that expert and legitimate power bases were most commonly used. Expert and referent power bases were also found to be related to job satisfaction. Bachman did not find this relationship with a referent power base. The relevance of their study was twofold. Firstly, they focused on the target by asking them to indicate the way their supervisors influence them. The extent to which their findings support or disagree with previous research may be affected

by their use of a test instrument that might lack validity and reliability. This criticism may be applicable to the bulk of the power base research. Thus the present study will attempt to construct a test instrument with some reliability and validity. The other relevant aspect of their study was their comments that a pattern or an additive combination may be a more meaningful way of viewing an influence attempt. A manager may use one technique from one power base followed closely with a technique from another base.

Finding further evidence of power base combinations in the present study would support the notion that not one but a number of variables interact in any acts of social power. That is, a particular task or situation, the characteristics and resources of the powerholder and the reaction of the target may influence the preference, the ultimate use, and effectiveness of certain power bases.

Kipnis and Consentino (1972) found evidence for the influence of the task or situation component in a power act. They investigated navy supervisors and found the means of influence depended on the nature of the problem. When a problem was complex, 76% of the supervisors used two means of influencing a subordinate. The most preferred means was ecological control. This was a power base that involved moving a subordinate to a new job, location, or shift. This power base corresponds with French and Raven's coercive power base. Interestingly enough, French and Raven suggested that the use of coercion would result in less

effective performance. Student (1968) found evidence to support this. Quality of work was found to be average when supervisors used coercion, whereas the use of a reward power base resulted in higher quality of work (although quantity suffered).

Berger (1972) demonstrated the side effects that may occur when a coercive power base is used. In a laboratory study, coercion was the only means of influence allowed. He found the powerholders perceived they were disliked by the people they were attempting to influence.

It would appear from these studies that techniques from a coercive power base are seldom preferred but when used leave emotional residue (feelings of guilt, being disliked) in the powerholder. Therefore, it is predicted that managers in the present study will have the least preference for a coercive power base.

In another study involving a large U.S. Corporation, Burke (1972) found subordinate job satisfaction related to expert and referent power bases. He found that a referent power base was most effective. His findings agreed with those of Warren (1968) and Burke and Wilcox (1971) mentioned earlier, but disagreed with Kahn's (1964) and Bachman's (1966, 1968) findings. In explaining this variation, Burke introduced another variable. His hypothesis - the higher up in the formal organizational hierarchy the manager is, the greater the tendency to utilize a referent power base. The hypothesis will be tested in the present study by comparing first line, middle, and senior managers' preferences for a referent power base.

In his discussion, Burke commented that managers often want the organization to give them more power to reward compliance and punish noncompliance. However, these kinds of power might not be as effective as expert and referent power. Burke maintained that the expert and referent power bases cannot be delegated, but must be earned through demonstration of competence and interaction with subordinates.

In addition to the study results mentioned above, there were also interesting findings in relation to a number of other variables such as age, education, sex, and years of experience. For example, Raven cited two studies examining power in the classroom. In the first, junior and senior high school students were presented with a number of specific situations (domains). They were then asked to state the likelihood of being influenced from each power base. Teachers were attributed with legitimate power closely followed by expert and coercive. Fellow students were attributed with referent and reward power. The study is relevant in that it encompasses four components that may be involved in any act of social power. The components include the situation, the powerholder or person doing the influencing, the power base used, and the target person. The "teacher-student" results regarding legitimate and expert power are in keeping with some of the previous findings (Kahn & Bachman) but the "student-student" results are more consistent with Warren's findings. A possible explanation for only partial agreement is that the components of social power may interact. In Raven's study targets perceives they are being influenced by a

particular power base depending on the circumstance and the relative relationship between powerholder and target (i.e., teacher-student, student-peer).

The second study Raven referred to was that of Jamieson (1974). He asked students, "Why are you influenced by your teachers?". He found significant age group differences. High school students indicated teachers influenced them from a legitimate power base, whereas undergraduates said coercive and graduates said expert. The powerholder - target relationship was always the same (teacher-student), but the use of certain power bases varied. Thus, each component of social power may have subcomponents or specific variables that may also interact. Jamieson's study illustrates the significance of another variable, age, that is associated with the target component in social power.

Evidence of this age variable is seen in Burke and Wilcox's study (1971), mentioned earlier. Younger, less experienced employees felt they were mostly influenced from an expert power base. Older, more senior people said they were influenced more by coercion and legitimate power. They found no sex difference.

Raven, Centers, and Rodrigues (1971) not only found evidence for the situation component in social power, but also for specific variables associated with the target - age and education. They studied a sample of husband and wives in the U.S. Responses varied depending on the specific situation or domain. Generally, husbands indicated their wives influenced them from a referent power base whereas wives attributed them with expert

power. Younger spouses placed more emphasis on expert power but this decreased with age. Conversely, expert power increased with the amount of education while referent power decreased.

The present study will further explore the relationship between age, education, years of experience, and power base preferences. Based on the findings in the above studies it is predicted that older managers will have a greater preference for referent power. Those with less experience will score higher on expert power. A sample of students are also used in the present study. Since they are younger and more experienced than a sample of corporate managers, one would expect some differences in power base preference scores. Therefore, it is predicted that the students will score lower on referent and higher on expert power than corporate managers.

The summary of relevant studies suggests that French and Raven's typology may be helpful in understanding organizational behaviour. That is, supervisors tend to have predispositions for resorting to combinations of power bases when attempting to influence subordinates. However, there is some agreement and some disagreement in the findings of many studies. The absence of a standardized test instrument and the varying focus of these studies makes interpreting these discrepancies quite difficult. Therefore, there is a need to separate and systematically reexamine the variables associated with social power. The specific hypotheses being tested in the present study will be reviewed but first a power model will be described.

Power Model

By definition, social power is a dynamic interaction among people. Thus, the relationships among variables that pertain to these people must be examined. In addition, variables that deal with the situational context or environment must be identified. As pointed out in the review of literature, some authors (French & Raven, 1959; Back, 1961, Raser, 1966) have investigated variables associated with a powerholder; others (Kahn et al, 1969; Bachman, 1966; Burke & Wilcox, 1971) the response of a target; still others (Back, 1961; Kipnis, 1970; Berger, 1972; Burke, 1972), the specific situations and the effectiveness of influence attempts. Without a conceptual framework, interpretation of this research becomes difficult and misleading. Thus by reference to the power model, described in this study, one can depict the relative relationship of a number of variables and clarify the research focus.

The basis of this power model was Kipnis' (1972) descriptive model of the power act. However, the power model differs from Kipnis' in that it includes additional components or elements and a rearrangement of variables to reflect the sequential dynamics of an influence attempt. It is comprised of five components or elements; a situation, individual, technique, the effects, and information that serves as feedback to the individual on the outcome. For simplicity, the power model can be abbreviated "IN-SITE" and depicted as in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

ELEMENTS OF THE POWER MODEL ABBREVIATED

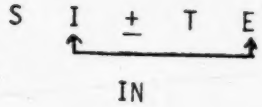
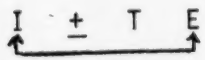


Figure 2 highlights the model but a brief description might be useful. The S refers to the situations where an influence attempt is made. These situations can be interactions between supervisors and subordinates in work settings or even between husband and wife in domestic settings. The situation involves a theme often referred to as the behavioural domain of an influence attempt. For example, Centers et al (1971) has shown husbands are influenced from a certain power base when a wife wants to visit a relative. However, the power base changes when the wife wants something repaired around the house.

The I represents the individual or powerholder who attempts to influence another person or persons. The T represents the techniques associated with each power base that the individual will use in a given situation. The E represents the effects or outcome of the influence attempt. There may be effects on a target person, on the individual making the influence attempt, and on the organization (or social unit i.e., family). The IN represents the information that the individual powerholder (I) receives about the effects (E). The I may receive this

FIGURE 2

VARIABLES THAT ARE ASSOCIATED WITH THE ELEMENTS OF THE POWER MODEL



Situation

* - position in organization
- interactions of:
- subordinates
- colleagues
- managers
- schools
- hospitals
- conjugal unit

Individual

* - power base preference
- power motive
- self-esteem
- need state
- age
- education
- years of experience
- sex

Resources (+)

- intelligence
- physical
- economic
- legal
- social status
- weapons
- knowledge of target's motivation and + resources

Inhibitions (-)

- physical
- values
- culture
- policy
- norms
- org. climate
- knowledge of target's motivation and + resources

Technique

- direct orders
- using authority
- promotions
- raises
- added responsibility
- disciplinary action
- firing (threats)
- rely on own expertise
- bring new information
- verbal convincing
- appeal to friendship
- ask personal favours
- appeal to company loyalty

Effects

On Target
- performance
- job satisfaction
- self-esteem
- resistance
- compliance
- attitude toward I
- motivation

On Individual
- self-esteem
- need state
- power base pref.
- perceptions of target

On Organization
- organization climate
- policy
- productivity

Information

- feedback to individual on effects

* Investigated in present study.

information directly from the immediate response of the target or indirectly from the organization or work unit. That is, without the surveillance of the target person's behaviour, some measure or indicator in the work unit may reflect the outcome of the influence attempt (T).

There are also two subelements in the model: the resources (+) an individual has the inhibitions (-) that may be present. The inhibitions could be personal limitations or external constraints. Argyris' comments (1958) illustrate the aspect of external constraints. He suggested a particular culture or character evolves in an organization. The cultural norms coerce conformity resulting in individuals behaving according to expected patterns. Similarly, Schopler (1965) criticized the French and Raven typology as not being comprehensive. He points out that it does not take into consideration resistant forces. These forces could affect the choice of influence techniques as well as their effectiveness.

The resources (+) also refer to individual strengths or traits as well as access to external resources such as information and funds. For example, Porter and Lawlor (1965) found the needs of higher level executives were more likely to be satisfied than lower ranking executives because of their access to more resources. Berger (1972) and Kipnis (1974) considered the access to the use of certain influence techniques a resource. Reinterpreted in the power model context, they are speaking of the presence or absence of inhibitions (-) such as policy, organizational norms, etc. which may or may not sanction or support the use of certain

techniques. For example, a manager may consider firing an employee but generous severance pay policies and anticipation of union reaction may prove to be sufficient inhibiting factors to warrant the use of another technique.

As mentioned earlier, there are a number of variables that relate to each element or component. For example, age, education, years of experience, and sex may be associated with the powerholder (I) or the target (E). Thus, the model can serve as a useful guide to the systematic research of a variety of variables. Table II provides a categorization of the research mentioned throughout this study. The research is categorized into the components or elements of the power model.

The variables in this study fall within the S and I elements of the power model. The manager's position in the organization is categorized as part of the situation (S) in the model. Power base preference is viewed as a characteristic of the indivdual (I). The technique (T), effects (E), and information (IN) elements are not under investigation in this study. If the results do not support the notion that variables associated with the situation (S) and individual (I) interact, it would suggest the model is inappropriate in describing the dynamics of power. Thus the present study will also attempt to provide some validation data for the power model.

TABLE 2

CATEGORIZATION OF RESEARCH INTO THE POWER MODEL

STUDIES	S	I	T	E	IN
Kelman (1958)				X	
Argyris (1959)	X	X		X	
Thibaut & Kelly (1959)		X		X	
French & Raven (1959)		X	X		
Back (1961)	X	X		X	
Likert (1961)	X			X	
Kahn et al (1964)	X		X	X	
Porter & Lawlor (1965)		X			
Raven (1965)			X	X	X
Rotter (1966)		X			
Bachman (1968)			X	X	
de Charms (1968)		X			
Kipnis (1970)	X	X	X		
Burke & Wilcox (1971)			X	X	
Berger (1972)	X	X	X	X	
Burke (1972)	X		X	X	
Lawless (1972)			X	X	
Kipnis & Consentino (1972)	X		X		
Kipnis & Tedeschi (1974)		X		X	X
Kruglanski (1972)	X	X			
Winter (1973)		X			
McClelland (1975)		X			

Hypotheses

A number of findings and hypotheses are referred to in the previous review of literature. The following are the hypotheses that will be tested:

1. Corporate managers, irrespective of position in the organization, prefer expert and legitimate power bases (highest scores).

2. The higher the level of the managers in the organization, the greater their preference for legitimate and referent power.

3. Coercion is the least preferred power base among all three levels of managers.

4. First and third level managers have less preference for reward than second level managers.

5. MBA graduate students have a greater preference for expert power than corporate managers.

6. The MBA graduate students have less preference for referent power than corporate managers.

7. The older the managers are, the greater their preference for referent power.

8. Managers with more years of experience have a greater preference for expert power.

9. Managers supervising large numbers of employees have a greater preference for legitimate power.

CHAPTER III

CONSTRUCTION OF THE SUPERVISORY SITUATIONS SURVEY (SSS)

Item Preparation

The work of French and Raven (1959) related to the bases of social power was reviewed. Each test item was designed to depict a situation involving a supervisor or manager and their staff. Some of the situations were based on employee grievance cases that were resolved in arbitration (published in Employee Relations in action). Other situations were based on actual experiences reported by supervisors in a major energy company. The situations involved themes such as absenteeism, tardiness, conduct on the job, and improving performance. In addition, Kahn's work (1964) on influence techniques associated with each power base was reviewed. The test items were then structured so that in each situation, a supervisor or manager would use a particular technique to influence their employee(s). The items were structured to allow participants to state the extent to which they disagree or agree (scale of 1-8) with the way the manager or supervisor handled the situation. For example:

As a practical joke, Jim lit a lunch bag on fire in the lunch room. The supervisor cautioned, "If anyone pulls a dangerous stunt like that again, there'll be a 30 day suspension."	1 Strongly Disagree	2	3	4	5	6	7	8 Strongly Agree

Another example:

To reduce personal injuries to employees of super-tankers, the manager of shipping introduced a program, "The ship with the best record will have the honour of raising this special safety award flag."

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
Strongly Disagree — Strongly Agree

A pool of 54 items similar to the above examples was prepared. To insure the test's readability, company secretaries with grade twelve education were asked to complete the test. Their comments were noted and used as a basis for item revisions.

Scoring Procedure

The scoring procedure involved a bipolar, eight point scale on an agree/disagree continuum. A score of 1 would indicate considerable disagreement whereas a score of 8 would indicate considerable agreement. The test items related to specific power bases. Adding the individual item scores resulted in a total score for each power base. The total scores of each power base would reflect the participant's relative preference for that power base. For example, a participant's highest score might be on the legitimate power base. It would suggest a predisposition for using influence techniques such as direct orders, relying on company policy, or using one's authority to make final decisions. In this way, the SSS is an ipsative measure of power base preference. See Appendix C for a listing of items for each power base.

Item Analysis Procedure

The initial version (Form A) of the Supervisory Situations Survey was administered to 37 managers. They were randomly selected from a population of managers working in a major energy company. A more detailed description of this sample will be given in a later chapter.

An item-total correlational analysis was performed on their responses. The results are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3

ITEM - TOTAL CORRELATIONS FOR
FORM A OF THE SUPERVISORY SITUATIONS SURVEY N= 37

ITEM NO.	ITEM TOTAL r	ITEM NO.	ITEM TOTAL r	ITEM NO.	ITEM TOTAL r	ITEM NO.	ITEM TOTAL r
1	.47	15	.33	29	.45	43	.43
2	.27	16	.43	30	.24	44	.51
3	.58	17	.50	31	.38	45	.49
4	.43	18	.32	32	.42	46	.61
5	.48	19	.41	33	.49	47	.30
6	.38	20	.55	34	.29	48	.33
7	.24	21	.44	35	.49	49	.51
8	.26	22	.48	36	.35	50	.46
9	.49	23	.35	37	.50	51	.68
10	.38	24	.62	38	.30	52	.28
11	.39	25	.54	39	.50	53	.56
12	.54	26	.40	40	.49	54	.60
13	.17	27	.49	41	.01		
14	.54	28	.59	42	.62		

Final Item Selection

The final item selection was based on three criteria. Firstly, the item-total correlation had to exceed .34. Secondly, any items which managers commented on as being confusing or difficult to respond to were rejected. Thirdly, the standard deviation had to exceed 1.5 units. The rationale for the item-total correlation and standard deviation criteria have been described by Bass and Berg (1959), Cattell (1965), and Nunnally (1967). The item-total correlation is an indicator of the homogeneity factor. It represents the extent to which the test item measures what the whole test measures. Since the SSS measures five power bases, five separate item-total correlations were performed. The standard deviation reflects the extent to which the responses are normally distributed. Table 4 gives the means and standard deviations for each item.

TABLE 4

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR EACH ITEM ON FORM A OF THE SUPERVISORY SITUATIONS SURVEY

ITEM NO.	MEAN	sd	ITEM NO.	MEAN	sd	ITEM NO.	MEAN	sd
1	3.73	2.23	19	4.97	2.43	37	4.27	2.42
2	2.76	1.82	20	3.57	2.26	38	4.19	2.27
3	4.97	2.30	21	5.68	2.14	39	3.29	1.99
4	4.51	2.30	22	3.05	1.82	40	5.35	2.32
5	3.62	2.14	23	2.86	1.89	41	3.73	2.36
6	4.27	2.40	24	3.19	2.14	42	6.00	2.11
7	3.05	2.22	25	3.89	2.64	43	5.95	1.99
8	4.46	2.57	26	5.76	2.14	44	3.68	2.12
9	6.65	2.04	27	4.14	2.51	45	6.38	1.80
10	5.40	2.24	28	4.97	2.41	46	3.16	2.20
11	5.43	2.14	29	6.11	1.91	47	5.40	2.22
12	2.78	1.93	30	6.16	1.95	48	4.89	2.42
13	3.62	2.46	31	4.86	2.03	49	3.95	2.38
14	3.19	2.16	32	5.65	2.09	50	3.22	1.73
15	4.16	2.35	33	4.68	2.24	51	5.38	2.10
16	2.92	2.28	34	4.78	2.51	52	6.19	2.17
17	5.05	2.49	35	4.62	2.38	53	5.32	2.29
18	5.38	2.15	36	6.62	1.60	54	2.95	2.23

Validity Considerations

Content validity was established by constructing the instrument using the theoretical framework of French and Raven (1959). Construct validity was considered in the ex post facto analysis of the SSS data from two samples of managers and a sample of graduate students. This will be discussed in further detail in a succeeding chapter. It was felt that further tests of validity were beyond the scope of this study.

Reliability Estimates

A sample of 18 MBA students from York University, Toronto, Ontario, were tested and retested over a two week interval. The test-retest reliabilities for each power base are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 5

TEST-RETEST CORRELATIONS
FOR GRADUATE STUDENT SAMPLE $N = 18$

POWER BASE	CORRELATION COEFFICIENT
Reward	.88
Legitimate	.77
Expert	.83
Coercion	.69
Referent	.77

The internal consistency or homogeneity was determined by the Kuder - Richardson 20 formula. The coefficients for each power are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6

INTERNAL CONSISTENCY K-R20
FOR FORM B OF THE SUPERVISORY
SITUATIONS SURVEY

POWER BASE	COEFFICIENT
Reward	.78
Legitimate	.79
Expert	.75
Coercion	.86
Referent	.85

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURE AND DESIGN

The Samples

Three samples were obtained for this study. The first sample was comprised of corporate managers and was utilized in the construction of the SSS. The second sample was comprised of graduate students (MBA program) and was utilized to establish the reliability (test-retest) of the SSS. The third sample was again comprised of corporate managers obtained from the same company as the first sample.

MBA Students

The sample consisted of 18 graduate students in an MBA program at York University. The testing was done during their evening class time. There were 14 males and 4 females. Their ages ranged from 21 to 44 with a mean of 29.3 years. Thirteen of the students also worked full time. Eight of them supervised a mean of 6 staff and were an average of 4 years in their jobs. Participation in the study was voluntary. In addition, all participants were given feedback and a short presentation on the context within which their results could be interpreted.

Corporate Managers

Both samples of corporate managers were obtained from the same company. The first sample consisted of 37 managers and the second, 127. The mean age was 45.7. They supervised a mean of 15.9 staff and had spent a mean of 19.9 years in their jobs. In respect to education, 43% had a Bachelor's degree (2/3 of them in engineering). Another 37% had completed high school or a diploma/certificate program. Only 9% had a post graduate education.

The managers were selected from three of four levels of management. The first level were first line supervisors with an annual salary range of $24,000 - $27,000.00. The second level were middle managers in the annual salary range of $33,000 - $41,000.00. The third level were executives earning $45,000 - $65,000 per year. All departments in the company were represented in the samples.

Instruments

The main instrument used in the study was the Supervisory Situations Survey (described earlier). Other materials consisted of a covering letter and a return envelope. The covering letter was written by the Manager of Human Resources (see Appendix A). It introduced the author and explained the purpose of the questionnaire. The confidentiality of responses was stressed.

Investigation Procedures

Prior to conducting the study in the company, permission was obtained from the Vice President of the Human Resources Department. Secondly, a computer print-out with the names and personal data of all managers was obtained. Subjects were then selected using a stratified random selection procedure. That is, managers were selected from three levels of management in each department of the company. The number to be selected from each deparrment was based on the proportion of managers in that department to the total number of managers in the company. An SSS questionnaire, covering letter and return envelope were then mailed to the subjects. Questionnaires were returned by 84% of the sample that was used in the test construction phase. In the main study sample, 89% of the questionnaires were returned. The questionnaire responses were put on data cards and with the use of a computer item analysis, correlations, and *t*-tests were performed. The power base preference scores of managers at three levels in the company were compared.

The design of the study also involved the correlational method. No controls are exerted other than the test measures. According to Shontz (1965), the correlational method is primarily concerned with the theoretical inferences that can be drawn from the relationships among variables. In this study, hypotheses have been made about the relationship between power base preference scores and a number of variables (age, education, number of employees supervised, and years of service).

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

In order to examine the findings and derive conclusions, the research hypotheses will be restated. The results will be presented as they relate to the groups in the test construction phase, the second sample of corporate managers and other variables (age, years of experience, education, and number of employees supervised).

Hypotheses Related to Power Base Preferences

1. Corporate managers, irrespective of position in the organization, will prefer expert and legitimate power bases (highest scores).

2. The higher the level of the managers in the organization the greater their preference for legitimate and referent power.

3. Coercion is the least preferred power base among all three levels of managers.

4. First and third level managers have less preference for reward than second level managers.

5. MBA graduate students have a greater preference for expert power than corporate managers.

6. The MBA graduate students have less preference for referent power than corporate managers.

7. The older the managers are the greater their preference for referent power.

8. Managers with more years of experience have a greater preference for expert power.

9. Managers supervising larger numbers of employees have a greater preference for legitimate power.

Results

In order to obtain empirical evidence to support the above hypotheses, *t*-tests and Pearson Product-Moment correlations were calculated. The results are presented in Tables 7 and 8.

TABLE 7

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR
EACH POWER BASE
(ALL LEVELS OF MANAGERS COMBINED)

N = 127

Power Base	Mean	Standard Deviation
Reward	44.43	10.63
Legitimate	44.37	10.80
Expert	43.32	10.97
Referent	34.68	9.84
Coercion	32.51	10.38

TABLE 8

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION FOR EACH
POWER BASE FOR EACH LEVEL OF MANAGER

N = 127

	LEVEL 1		LEVEL 2		LEVEL 3	
Power Base	$\bar{x}$	sd	$\bar{x}$	sd	$\bar{x}$	sd
Reward	46.1	10.5	45.2	9.9	41.9	11.2
Legitimate	45.2	11.1	47.0	9.7	41.1	10.9
Expert	44.7	11.2	44.3	8.9	41.0	12.3
Referent	36.6	9.5	36.6	8.3	30.8	10.6
Coercion	32.3	11.0	36.9	9.2	28.6	9.3

Conclusions

The following conclusions were derived from the obtained results:

(a) Corporate managers, irrespective of position in the organization, prefer reward, expert and legitimate power bases (hypothesis 1).

(b) Coercion is the least preferred power base among levels 1 and 3 managers (hypothesis 3). Level 2 managers preferred both coercion and referent power bases the least.

The remaining hypotheses were not supported. However, when the power base scores of managers at a particular level were compared to another level, a number of significant findings occurred:

(a) Level 1 managers disliked coercion more than level 2 managers;
(b) Level 1 managers preferred reward and legitimate power bases more than level 3 managers
(c) Level 2 managers preferred a legitimate power base more than level 3 managers;
(d) Level 3 managers disliked coercive and referent power bases more than level 1 and level 2 managers.

Table 9 depicts the above findings.

TABLE 9

COMPARISON OF SSS SCORES OF MANAGERS AT THREE LEVELS IN THE ORGANIZATION

LEVEL OF MANAGER COMPARED	$\bar{x}$	POWER BASE	OBTAINED t-VALUE	DEGREES OF FREEDOM
1	32.3	Coercion	- 2.08 *	82
2	36.9			
1	46.1	Reward	1.78 *	85
3	41.9			
1	45.2	Legitimate	1.73 *	85
3	41.1			
1	32.3	Coercion	1.68 *	85
3	28.6			
1	36.6	Referent	2.70 *	85
3	30.8			
2	47.0	Legitimate	2.61 *	81
3	41.1			
2	36.9	Coercion	4.09 *	81
3	28.6			
2	36.6	Referent	2.77	81
3	30.8			

* $p < .05$

Findings Related to Groups in the SSS Construction Phase

As mentioned previously, a group of corporate managers were used for the SSS item analysis procedure. The MBA students were used in the test-retest reliability procedure.

MBA Students

When the means of both the test and retest were combined, the highest mean scores were on the reward and expert power bases. Table 10 presents the combined means on each power base. The test-retest correlations ranged from .69 to .88. Table 5 represents the test-retest correlation coefficients.

TABLE 10

COMBINED MEANS OF THE TEST AND RETEST ON EACH POWER BASE (MBA STUDENTS)

N = 18

Power Base	Combined Means
Reward	44.5
Expert	41.2
Legitimate	39.5
Referent	38.5
Coercion	33.0

Corporate Managers

Form A of the SSS was administered to a group of managers. The highest mean scores were on the legitimate and expert power bases. Table 11 presents the means on each power base.

TABLE 11

MEAN SCORES ON FORM A OF THE SSS (ADMINISTERED TO CORPORATE MANAGERS)

N = 37

Power Base	$\bar{x}$
Legitimate	46.6
Expert	44.8
Reward	42.0
Coercion	35.1
Referent	34.0

Findings Related to Other Variables

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated to determine the relationship between age, years of experience, education, number of employees supervised, and scores on each power base. No significant relationship (p's < .05) was found with age, the number of employees supervised, and education.

Years of experience did correlate negatively with the coercion and reward power bases. The correlation coefficients were -.24 ($p < .01$) and -.18 ($p < .05$) respectively. Table 12 presents the correlation for age and years of experience.

TABLE 12

PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATIONS
BETWEEN POWER BASE SCORES AND OTHER VARIABLES

OTHER VARIABLES	REWARD	LEGITIMATE	COERCION	REFERENT	EXPERT
Age	- 0.06	- 0.01	- 0.08	- 0.08	0.01
Years of Experience	- 0.18	- 0.015	- 0.24	- 0.15	- 0.04
Number of Employees Supervised	0.01	0.07	0.10	0.10	- 0.03
Education	0.03	- 0.03	0.02	- 0.09	- 0.03

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Some of the more pertinent findings will be discussed in this chapter. Implications of these results will be pointed out and directions for future research will be described.

The SSS Questionnaire and Power Base Preference

The first main objective of the study was achieved in that a power base preference test instrument was constructed and the preferences of a sample of industrial managers examined. Power base preference as defined by French and Raven (1959) was objectively measured with the Supervisory Situations Survey (SSS). The test was found to be highly reliable and some of the stated hypotheses were confirmed.

Based on the studies of Kahn (1964) and Berger (1972) the coercive power base was thought to be the least preferred. This was the case in the present study with both the student and manager samples (hypothesis 3 confirmed). Similarly, the work of Warren (1968) and Burke and Wilcox (1971) suggested managers use a combination of power bases. The fact that there were no significant differences in mean scores on the legitimate and reward power bases in the present study suggests that managers prefer more than one power base. A specific prediction about this combination was made based on Bachman's findings (1966, 1968). The

results of this study are in concurrance, in that the highest scores were on the legitimate and expert power bases (hypothesis 1 confirmed). However, the unexpected finding was that the reward mean score tied with the legitimate power base score. With the exception of Student (1968) most studies found reward seldom used. Possibly, many theorists do not agree with certain aspects of learning theory that deal with extrinsic motivation. A more plausible explanation is that managers both recognize the test item situations involving reward and prefer its use over other bases. However, in the job setting, these managers do not use reward because they may not have the resources or they are not aware of the opportunities for providing rewards contingent on performance. Thus, caution must be exercised when interpreting the power base preference scores. A manager may have a high preference score but not actually use any of the techniques associated with that power base. Further research could clarify this point.

An interesting implication of these findings is the use of the SSS could facilitate the analysis of work unit problems. For example, excessive absenteeism and turnover may be attributed in part to the preference and use of inappropriate power base techniques. Also, some managers suffering from stress may be in an incongruent state, i.e., preferring to treat their employees one way but compelled to do something else. Another implication for the SSS is the ex post facto analysis of the results. The fact that the results were consistent with some of the predicted outcomes provides some evidence of construct validity. However,

further validity testing of the SSS is recommended. This author has recently become aware of another test instrument (Hersey, Blanchard, & Natemeyer, 1979) largely based on French and Raven's typology. Some further tests of validity could be conducted using this new test and the SSS.

Once the validity of the SSS has been further explored, a number of industrial populations could be tested to establish norms. The SSS could also be used for assessing the effectiveness of supervisory or management training programs (i.e., leadership or organization behaviour modification courses).

Power Base Preference and Level of Position of Corporate Managers in the Organization

Another main objective of the study was achieved in that relationship between level of position held in an organization and power base preference was determined. The preferences of the three levels of management were significantly different for all the power bases except expert power.

Level 1 had a greater dislike for coercion than level 2 managers. Possibly, first line supervisors may have had to resort to using coercive techniques more frequently than middle managers. Occasionally this may have resulted in negative consequences such as emotional outbursts or formal grievances. Thus the effects of certain power base techniques may subsequently effect the powerholder's preference for them in the future.

The explanation would be consistent with Kipnis' (1976) explanation of the "metamorphic effects" of power. It also provides an explanation of how the "IN" component of the power model operates (feedback).

Level 3 managers also had a dislike for coercion - significantly more than level 1 and level 2 managers. This finding might be explained in relation to the variable years of experience. A significant negative correlation was found between years of experience and the preference for a coercive power base. The interpretation is that the more experienced the manager the less likely he or she is to prefer the use of coercive techniques. In other words, the longer a manager has worked the greater the probability that he tried coercive techniques and experienced some negative consequence. Therefore, these experienced managers would dislike or have low coercive preference scores.

Level 3 managers had a significantly greater dislike for referent power than level 1 and 2 managers. This is the opposite of what was predicted (hypothesis 2). Senior managers were thought to work more closely with their staff and their influence attempts derived from the identification process of referent power. This does not appear to be the case. However, the SSS items measuring referent power consisted of different influence techniques. The hypothesis might have been confirmed if the items involving personal favours were separated from those involving an identification process. This will be further discussed in the next section.

Level 1 managers had a significantly greater preference for reward and legitimate power bases than level 3 managers. Moss Kanter (1979) indicated some first line and senior managers were often "powerless" because they had no access to resources. This might explain why the senior managers (level 3) had a lower reward preference score.

Some of the findings were peculiar in that level 3 managers had lower mean preference scores on every power base (when compared to level 1 and 2 managers). Perhaps these senior managers have some other preferred means of influencing people. Following a series of studies, Raven (1965) added an information base to the power base typology. This might account for the lower scores, since the SSS instrument does not contain items which measure an information power base.

In summary, one aspect of the study showed different levels of management varying in their preferred means of influencing others. This provides support for the significance of the S and I elements in the power model. Therefore, continued research on the other elements should provide a better understanding of the dynamics of social power. The model might prove useful to organizations in analyzing their successes and failures in MBO, team building or quality of work life projects. Ultimately, the power model could be a useful predictive tool by computerizing the various research information on the elements of the model and adding mathematical probability factors.

Unsupported Hypotheses

Based on a review of literature, a number of hypotheses were made. Rejection of some of them requires an explanation.

Burke's findings (1972) and subsequent hypothesis that managers higher up in the organization tend to use a referent power base was rejected (hypothesis 2). Firstly, Burke had asked subordinates how their bosses "on the average" or generally influenced them. If the subordinates were presented with specific situations, their responses might have been quite different. Secondly, Burke was measuring the target person's perceptions. The present study measured the managers' or powerholders' perceptions. Therefore, the discrepancy in the findings may be attributed to the managers preference and use of power differing from the target's perception.

This could be the explanation for the rejection of hypotheses 5 and 6 as well. Jamieson (1974) had found graduate students reporting they were influenced most by expert power. Raven et al (1971) also found age and education significant variables when studying U.S. wives and husbands. Both of these studies questioned the target as to their perceptions about the way they are influenced. In future research, this issue could be approached by testing both the managers and their subordinate. In addition, specific domains or situations presented in the SSS related to the work environment. Thus, the managers responses might have been consistent with Raven's findings if family domains or situations had

been presented. Thus, having failed to support these hypotheses has resulted in an encouraging implication. It provides indirect evidence of the significance of the situation element in the power model. The hypothesis regarding the relationship between a reward power base and level of management was not supported (hypothesis 4). An explanation was provided in the previous section.

Hypotheses 7, 8, and 9 were also rejected. These predictions relating to age, education and number of employees supervised were based on the findings of Kahn et al (1964), Raven et al (1971), and Burke and Wilcox (1971). Their obtained results related to the perceptions of the target person. Again, the discrepancy in the findings may be attributed to the manager's preference and use of power differing from the way the target believes he or she is being influenced.

According to Schopler (1965) expertise on one task produces the ability to exert influence on a second, but only when tasks are comparable. Therefore, it is conceivable that the SSS items which determined preferences for expert power were tapping situations with noncomparable tasks. In other words, a manager's preference for expert power may be quite high but only in relation to his area of competency.

Hypothesis 9 involving predictions about the number of employees supervised and legitimate preference scores was not confirmed. The implication is that irrespective of the total numbers supervised, managers may prefer to use different power bases depending on which employee he/she

is attempting to influence. This would be consistent with the power model which emphasizes the importance of the target.

Hypotheses 2, 6, and 7 involved predictions about referent power. The mean preference scores for referent power were the second lowest for all the samples. In the context of previous social power studies these low scores were unexpected. One of Kahn's findings (1964) might provide an explanation. He found subordinates liked influence techniques based on attraction or the degree to which they identified with the superior. But, influence based on personal favour or company loyalty was perceived as distasteful. The SSS instrument includes items that depict techniques based on both identification, personal favours and company loyalty. Thus by combining the scores on all these items, there would be a depressing effect on the total referent score. This could be remedied by reporting the referent scores separately.

In conclusion, the making of necessary adjustments to the SSS and conducting further research on the power model will facilitate our understanding of the analytical and applied issues of power in organizations.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Argyris, C. "Understanding Human Behaviour in Organizations: One Viewpoint" in "Modern Organizational Theory", Mason Haire (ed.), New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1959.

Back, K.W. Power Influence and Pattern of Communication in "Studies in Social Power", Cartwright, D. (ed.), Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1959.

Bachman, J.G. Faculty Satisfaction and the Dean's Influence: An Organizational Study of Twelve Liberal Arts Colleges, Journal of Applied Psychology, 1968, 52, 55-61.

Bass, B.M. and Berg, I.A. (eds.), "Objective Approaches to Personality Assessment", Princeton, New Jersey: B. Van Nostrand, 1959.

Berger, L.S. "Use of Power, Machiavellianism and Involvement in a Simulated Industrial Setting", Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Temple University, 1972.

Burke, R.J. and Wilcox, D.S. Bases of Supervisory Power and Subordinate Job Satisfactions, Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science, 1971, 3, 2, 183-193.

Burke, R.J. Employee Satisfaction and Bases of Supervisory Power: Occupational Differences, Journal of Business Administration, 1972, 3, 2, 77-81.

Cattell, R.B. "The Scientific Analysis of Personality", Middlesex, England: Penguin Books, 1965.

Collins, B.E. and Raven, B.H. Psychological Aspects of Structure in the Small Group: Interpersonal Attraction, Coalitions, Communication, and Power in G. Lindzey and E. Aronson (eds.), "The Handbook of Social Psychology", 2nd edition, Vol. 4, Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1969, 102-204.

de Charms, R. "Personal Causation", New York: Academic Press, 1968.

Ferguson, G.A. "Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education", Toronto: McGraw-Hill, 1976.

French, J.R.P., Jr., and Raven, B.H. The Bases of Social Power in D. Cartwright (ed.), "Studies in Social Power", Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1959.

Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. and Natemeyer, W. Situational Leadership, Perception, and the Impact of Power, Group and Organization Studies, 1979, 4, 4, 418-428.

Kahn, R.L., Wolfe, D.M., Quinn, R.P., Snoek, J.D., Rosenthal, R.A., "Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity", New York: John Wiley, 1964.

Kelman, H.C. Compliance, Identification and Internalization: Three Processes of Attitude Change, Journal of Conflict Resolution, 1958, 2, 51-60.

Kipnis, D., Cosentino, J., Use of Leadership Powers in Industry, Journal of Applied Psychology, 1972, 53, 460-466.

Kipnis, D., Goodstadt, B. Situational Influences on the Use of Power, Journal of Applied Psychology, 1970, 54, 201-207.

Kipnis, D. and Tedeschi, J.T. in Tedeschi, T. (ed.), "Perspectives on Social Power", Chicago: Aldine Publishing, 1974.

Kruglanski, A.W., Alon, S. and Lewis, T. Retrospective Misattribution and Task Enjoyment, Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1972, 8, 493-501.

Lasswell, H.D. and Kaplan, A. "Power and Society: A framework for Political Inquiry", New Haven: Yale University Press, 1950.

Lawless, D.J. "Effective Management: Social Psychological Approach", New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1972.

Likert, R. "New Patterns of Management", New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

McClelland, D.C. "Power, the Inner Experience", Toronto: John Wiley, 1975.

Moss Kanter, R. "Power Failure in Management Circuits", Harvard Business Review, 1979, July - August, 65-75.

Nunnally, R. "Psychometric Theory", New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.

Porter, L., Lawlor, E. Properties of Organizational Structure in Relation to Job Attitude and Job Behaviour, Psychological Bulletin, 1965, 64, 23-51.

Raser, J.R. Personal Characteristics of Political Decision Makers, Peace Research and Society (International) Papers, 1966, 5, 161-181.

Raven, B.H., Centers, R. and Rodrigues, A. Social Influence in The Dyad: The Bases of Conjugal Power, University of California at Los Angeles (Technical Report, 1969, No. 25, Nonr 233 (54)).

Raven, B.H. Social Influence and Power in Steiner, I.D. and Fishbein, M. (eds.), "Current Studies in Social Psychology", New York: Holt, Rhinehart & Winston, 1965, 371-82.

Raven, B.H., Kruglanski, A.W. "Conflict and Power", New York: Academic Press, 1970.

Rotter, J.B. Generalized Expectancies for Internal Versus External Control of Reinforcement, Psychological Monographs, 1966, 80, 1 (whole No. 609).

Schopler, J. "Social Power" in Berkowitz, L. (ed.), "Advances in Experimental Social Psychology" (Vol. 2), New York: Academic Press, 1965, 177-218.

Shontz, F.C. "Research Methods in Personality", New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1965.

Student, J.R. "Supervisory Influence and Work Group Performance", Journal of Applied Psychology, 1968, 52, 188-194.

Tannenbaum, A.S. "Control in Organizations: Individual Adjustment and Organizational Performance", Administrative Science Quarterly, 1962, 7, 2, 236-257.

Thibaut, J. and Kelley, H. "The Social Psychology of Groups", New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1959.

Warren, D.I. "Power, Visibility, and Conformity in Formal Organizations", American Sociological Review, 1968, 6, 951-970.

Winter, D.G. "The Power Motive", New York: Free Press, 1973.

APPENDIX A

GULF CANADA LIMITED

RE: MANAGEMENT RESEARCH

Randal Summers is a member of the training staff in Human Resources Department at Head Office, In completing the requirements for his doctorate degree in Educational Psychology, he is conducting his research in Gulf Canada. The research involves a survey of managers' preferences for various ways of getting work done through others.

Your name (one of 90 managers across Canada) has been randomly selected. Your participation in the study is voluntary, If you choose to participate, the enclosed questionnaire should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. All information will be retained by Mr. Summers, used for his educational purposes only, and kept in the strictest confidence.

I would appreciate your returning the questionnaire (completed or blank) in the enclosed envelope. Thank you for your time and cooperation.

E.J. Gaunt
Manager - Human Resources

EJG:cm
Enclosures

Gulf

APPENDIX B

RESEARCH FORM B

SUPERVISORY SITUATION SURVEY

SUMMERS, R.W. and FOX, E.E.

This survey consists of sixty (45) situations that involve incidents between supervisors/managers and their staff. You may or may not have taken the same action in those situations. Therefore, please circle a number from 1 to 8 indicating the extent to which you agree or disagree with the supervisors'/managers' actions. Circling a 1 would indicate your strong disagreement; circling an 8 would indicate your strong agreement. Once you have made your choice please do not go back over the questions and change your answers.

EXAMPLE

	STRONGLY DISAGREE						STRONGLY AGREE	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

A. Alex failed to complete assignments, and was absent frequently, and constantly argued with other employees. His supervisor recommended Alex's immediate dismissal.

1 2 3 4 5 6 (7) 8

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
A B C D E

NAME: _____

Number of Employees Supervised: _____

	STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(1) A mailroom clerk was late three times in one week. On the third occasion, the manager said, "I want to remind you that the company has been good to you and expects its employees to be loyal in return by being on time."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(2) The rate for key punching cards for computer use was slowing down. The supervisor said, "I'm going to begin replacing you people if the average key strokes per minute doesn't increase."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(3) An employee was absent two Mondays per month for the past two months. The supervisor said, "As the person responsible for the production of this unit, I want your Monday absenteeism to stop."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(4) Data processors in the Systems Department were making incorrect entries. The supervisor informed them, "I've estimated the cost of an error to be $87.50 in man hours and computer time."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

(5) The Personnel Manager, concerned about recruiting time, said to the recruiting officer,

A B C D E
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

	STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
"When I had your job, I decreased recruiting time by 10%. You're like me in many ways so I'll look forward to some new ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(6) The women in packaging at a candy factory complained about the foul language of the machine operator. The supervisor then warned. "Clean up your language or I"ll transfer you to another department!"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(7) A device recorded each time a bus accelerated or braked too quickly. A supervisor said, "Proper driving saves on repairs. The best driver of the week will be announced in the newsletter and get two theatre tickets."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(8) There was a lot of gambling among the men at lunch hours. The supervisor invited a person from Gambler's Anonynous to describe the personal tragedies that result from gambling.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(9) Following a fire inspection, a new "No Smoking" area was created in a plant. The area supervisor called a short meeting and announced that there is to be no smoking in the new area.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(10) Staff were taking extended coffee breaks. The supervisor circulated a memo. It said each time one third of the								

A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D ☐ E ☐

	STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
staff take extended breaks, it costs $8,000 in lost time and delays in production. He added it's in the company's best interest to follow the set break periods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(11) At a regional manager's meeting, the director said, "I've reviewed your sales records and they are good, but I feel we can trim some of our costs. Those reducing cost of sales by 15% can expect a bonus at the end of the quarter."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(12) Actual costs have been exceeding project estimates by $5,000.00. The manager called the project estimator in and said, "Joe, we've been through a lot together. I'm asking you as an old friend, we've got to bring our figures into line."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(13) Production schedules fell behind so quality control checks weren't done. The plant manager sent a directive, "Quality control reports must been done on all product runs."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(14) An average performer was constantly complaining about unfair company policy. His supervisor said, "If you don't quit your belly-aching I'll have to take disciplinary action - take this as a warning."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D ☐ E ☐

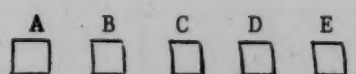
	STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(15) Wanting to increase productivity, a supervisor said to his staff, "Increase the number of invoices processed per week and I'll make sure it's viewed in a positive light at evaluation time."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(16) A staff member, without a demanding work load, refused to take on a new task. The supervisor urged him to reconsider, "By taking on this new task, the company will save the cost of hiring and training a part time help."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(17) At year end, the manager wanted his staff to work overtime. He said, "We've got a good team here and I ask you more as your team leader than boss to put in a few hours of overtime."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(18) Because of the secretary's work overload, the supervisor said to the staff, "From now on, I want all of you to take your own incoming calls directly."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(19) Having observed staff leaving early on Friday afternoons, a supervisor posted a memo, "Anyone leaving the work area before a shift end will receive a letter of warning the first time and two day suspension the second time."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D ☐ E ☐

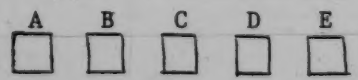
	STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(20) A manger wanted accident reports completed more accurately and submitted with less delay. He said, "The unit head with the best improvement in the next six month period will be awarded two dinner/theater tickets."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(21) In an attempt to increase wine sales, a restaurant manager decided to give waiters a bonus for selling wine to 45% of his tables each night.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(22) A maintenance supervisor found an employee hoarding tools. "You are supposed to return the tools to the rack so others can use them. If I see that again, you'll be out on your ear."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(23) A supervisor noticed a summer student wandering away from the work area. "Get back to your work station and don't leave it without permission."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(24) Absenteeism was up and productivity down at a refrigerator repair company. The district manager said to his field supervisors, "I'm asking a personal favour of all of you - see if you can tackle this summer slump."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D ☐ E ☐

	STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(25) An argument occurred among two employees as a result of a racial slur. The supervisor intervened, "According to new legislation and our amended company policy, racial remarks are out of bounds."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(26) A manager responsible for flight reservations announced, "In an effort to stimulate sales, we will offer a cash bonus for the ticket agent booking the most return trips."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(27) A series of practical jokes resulted in a fight between Mike and Ernie. Their supervisor said, " Any more nonsense and one of you will be rescheduled on to the night shift."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(28) A supervisor was upset by the graffiti written on the washroom walls. At a staff meeting he said, " From now on, bathroom art is dead. I want no more graffiti in the washroom."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(29) A new employee hung a picture of Hitler above his workbench. The supervisor said, "I've worked here a long time and know everyone quite well. That picture is going to offend some people."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8



	STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(30) A lady complained about a street construction crew's vulgar comments and whistling. The manager said, " I want you guys to conduct yourselves properly and that includes no swearing in public."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(31) A hydro repairman's T-shirt depicted a dinosaur and read "Fossil fuels are extinct". His supervisor commented. "It would be much better for the company's image if you didn't wear that T-shirt.".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(32) A shipping manager was concerned about the amount of damaged inventory in the warehouse. He called a special meeting of the fork lift drivers and said, "I want you to slow down and be more careful with full loads."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(33) The RAM-JET Corporation was faced with falling sales and skyrocketing costs. The production manager warned, "If productivity doesn't pick up around here, there will be a lot of lay-offs."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(34) A supervisor came upon big George beating up a vending maching and said, "I know it's a bandit, but do me a favour George, take it easy on the machine."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8



	STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(35) A mail courier couldn't resist pinching the attractive receptionist. The office manager said, "Antonio! I must remind you that we have a policy forbidding sexual harrassment."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(36) A truck driver was continually running behind schedule. His supervisor said, "If there is a 50% improvement over the next three months, we'll award you that radio you always talk about."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(37) Martin was usually found near Sheila's desk. The supervisor finally said, "Keep your romance from interfering with your work or I'll transfer Martin to another branch."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(38) Consultants spent more time than necessary on projects in regions with warmer climates. The manager wrote a memo, "Reducing the time spent on each project will reflect your sincere commitment to company goals."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(39) In a restaurant, the cash failed to balance with the cash register tapes. The manager said, "If you balance four out of five days, you get a choice of shift the next week."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

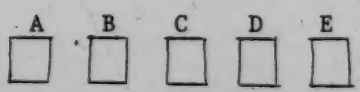
A B C D E

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

	STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(40) A manager circulated a memo stating. " We are starting a new fitness program and encouraged all employees to sign up. Experts tell us the program will benefit our company by increasing productivity, reducing sick time, and improving morale."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(41) As a practical joke, Jim lit a lunch bag on fire in the lunch room. The supervisor cautioned, "If anyone pulls a dangerous stunt like that again, there'll be a 30 day suspension."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(42) Some employees book off during the hunting season. The supervisor said, "We're backlogged and sales is on my back. Could you do me a personal favour by post-poning your vacation."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(43) To reduce personal injuries to employees of super-tankers, the manager of shipping introduced a program, "The ship with the best record will have the honour of raising this special safety award flag."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(44) Maria forgot to lock the cash register several times. The manager referred to some crime statistics and said, "You are doing the same thing as these burgled homeowners who didn't lock their doors - you invite crime!"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

A ☐ B ☐ C ☐ D ☐ E ☐

	STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
(45) A supervisor wanting to improve attendance said, "I haven't missed a day of work in the past five years. Like me, you care about what happens around here so let's see some more records like mine."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8



APPENDIX C

Items by Power Base
on the SSS Form B

Power Bases				
Reward	Legitimate	Referrent	Expert	Coercion
7	3	5	1	2
11	9	12	4	6
15	13	17	8	14
20	18	24	31	19
21	23	34	16	22
26	25	35	29	27
36	28	42	40	33
39	30	45	44	37
43	32	38	10	41

Item Numbers